

KEY TERMS

Hunting and gathering: means of obtaining subsistence by humans before the mastery of sedentary agriculture; normally typical of tribal social organization.

Civilization: societies with reliance on sedentary agriculture, ability to produce food surpluses, and existence of nonfarming elites, along with merchant and manufacturing groups.

Paleolithic: the Old Stone Age ending in 12,000 B.C.E.; typified by use of evolving stone tools and hunting and gathering for subsistence.

Neolithic: the New Stone Age between 8000 and 5000 B.C.E.; period in which adaptation of sedentary agriculture occurred; domestication of plants and animals accomplished.

Nomads: cattle- and sheep-herding societies normally found on the fringes of civilized societies; commonly referred to as “barbarian” by civilized societies.

Culture: combinations of ideas, objects, and patterns of behavior that result from human social interaction.

Homo sapiens: the species of humanity that emerged as most successful at the end of the Paleolithic.

Agrarian revolution: occurred between 8000 and 5000 B.C.E.; transition from hunting and gathering to sedentary agriculture.

Pastoralism: a nomadic agricultural lifestyle based on herding domesticated animals; tended to produce independent people capable of challenging sedentary agricultural societies.

Çatal Hüyük: early urban culture based on sedentary agriculture; located in modern southern Turkey; larger in population than Jericho, had greater degree of social stratification.

Bronze Age: from 4000 to 3000 B.C.E.; increased use of plow, metalworking; development of wheeled vehicles, writing.

Mesopotamia: literally “between the rivers”; the civilizations that arose in the alluvial plain of the Tigris-Euphrates river valleys.

Potter’s wheel: a technological advance in pottery making; invented circa 6000 B.C.E.; encouraged faster and higher-quality ceramic pottery products.

Sumerians: people who migrated into Mesopotamia circa 4000 B.C.E.; created the first civilization within the region; organized area into city-states.

Cuneiform: a form of writing developed by the Sumerians using a wedge-shaped stylus and clay tablets.

City-state: a form of political organization typical of Mesopotamian civilization; consisted of agricultural hinterlands ruled by an urban-based king.

Ziggurats: massive towers usually associated with Mesopotamian temple connections.

Babylonian Empire: unified all of Mesopotamia circa 1800 B.C.E.; collapsed due to foreign invasion circa 1600 B.C.E.

Hammurabi: the most important Babylonian ruler; responsible for codification of the law.

Pharaoh: the term used to denote the kings of ancient Egypt; the term, “great house” refers to the palace of the pharaohs.

Pyramids: monumental architecture typical of Old Kingdom Egypt; used as burial sites for pharaohs.

Hieroglyphs: form of writing developed in ancient Egypt; more pictorial than Mesopotamian cuneiform.

Kush: African state that developed along the upper reaches of the Nile circa 1000 B.C.E.; conquered Egypt and ruled it for several centuries.

Monotheism: the exclusive worship of one god; introduced by Jews into Middle Eastern civilization.

Phoenicians: seafaring civilization located on the shores of the eastern Mediterranean; established colonies throughout the Mediterranean.

Harappa and Mohenjo Daro: major urban complexes of Harappan civilization; laid out on planned grid pattern.

Aryans: Indo-European nomadic, warlike, pastoralists who replaced Harappan civilization.

Huanghe (Yellow) River Basin: site of the development of sedentary agriculture in China.

Shang: 1st Chinese dynasty.

Oracles: shamans or priests in Chinese society who foretold the future through interpreting animal bones cracked by heat; inscriptions on bones led to Chinese writing.

Ideographic writing: pictograph characters grouped together to create new concepts; typical of Chinese writing.

Zhou: originally a vassal family of the Shang; possibly Turkic-speaking in origin; overthrew Shang and established 2nd Chinese dynasty (1122–256 B.C.E.)

Xianyang: capital of the Zhou dynasty.

Feudalism: social organization created by exchanging grants of land (fiefs) in return for formal oaths of allegiance and promises of loyal service; typical of Zhou dynasty.

Mandate of Heaven: the divine source of political legitimacy in China; established under Zhou to justify overthrow of Shang.

Qin: dynasty (221–207 B.C.E.) founded at the end of the Warring States period.

Shi Huangdi: first emperor of China; founder of Qin dynasty.

Warring States period: time of warfare between regional lords following the decline of the Zhou dynasty in the 8th century B.C.E.

Confucius: major Chinese philosopher born in 6th century B.C.E.; sayings collected in *Analects*; philosophy based on the need for restoration of social order through the role of superior men.

Laozi: Chinese Daoist philosopher; taught that governments were of secondary importance and recommended retreat from society into nature.

Daoism: philosophy associated with Laozi; individual should seek alignment with Dao or cosmic force.

Legalists: Chinese school of political philosophy; stressed the need for the absolute power of the emperor enforced through strict application of laws.

Great Wall: Chinese defensive fortification built to keep out northern nomadic invaders; began during the reign of Shi Huangdi.

Han: dynasty succeeding the Qin ruled from 202 B.C.E. to 220 C.E.

Himalayan Mountains: region marking the northern border of the Indian subcontinent.

Varnas: the categories organizing Indian society into a functional hierarchy.

Untouchables: lowest caste in Indian society; performed tasks that were considered polluting (street sweeping, removal of human waste, tanning).

Karma: the sum of merits accumulated by an individual; determined the caste one would be born into in the next life.

Reincarnation: the successive rebirth of the soul according to merits earned in previous lives.

Mahabharata, Ramayana: Indian epics, deeply imbued with Hindu teachings.

Buddha: creator of a major Indian and Asian religion; born in the 6th century B.C.E.; taught that enlightenment could be achieved only by abandoning desires for earthly things.

Nirvana: the Buddhist state of enlightenment; a state of tranquility.

Maurya dynasty: established in Indian subcontinent in 4th century B.C.E. following the invasion of Alexander the Great.

Chandragupta Maurya: founder of the Mauryan dynasty, the first empire in the Indian subcontinent; first centralized government since Harappan civilization.

Kautilya: political advisor to Chandragupta Maurya; wrote political treatise.

Ashoka: grandson of Chandragupta Maurya; extended conquests of the dynasty; converted to Buddhism and sponsored its spread throughout his empire.

Stupas: stone shrines built to house relics of the Buddha; preserved Buddhist architectural forms.

Upanishads: later books of the Vedas; combined sophisticated and sublime philosophical ideas.

Shiva, Vishnu: the most important Hindu deities.

Gupta dynasty: built an empire in the 3rd century C.E. that included all but southern Indian regions; less centralized than Mauryan Empire.

Sanskrit: the classical and sacred Indian language.

Cyrus the Great: (c. 576 or 590–529 B.C.E.); founded Persian Empire by 550 B.C.E.; successor state to Mesopotamian empires.

Zoroastrianism: Persian religion that saw material existence as a battle between the forces of good and evil; stressed the importance of moral choice; a last judgment decided the eternal fate of each person.

Hellenism: culture derived from the Greek civilization that flourished between 800 and 400 B.C.E.

Hellenistic culture: culture associated with the spread of Greek influence and intermixture with other cultures as a result of Macedonian conquests.

***Iliad* and *Odyssey*:** Greek epic poems attributed to Homer; defined relations of gods and humans that shaped Greek mythology.

Polis: city-state form of government typical of Greek political organization from 800 to 400 B.C.E.

Socrates: Athenian philosopher of late 5th century B.C.E.; condemned to death for “corrupting” minds of Athenian young; usually seen as the father of western philosophy.

Direct democracy: literally, rule of the people—in Athens it meant all free male citizens; all decisions emanated from the popular assembly without intermediation of elected representatives.

Pericles: Athenian political leader during 5th century B.C.E.; guided development of Athenian Empire.

Olympic games: one of the pan-Hellenic rituals observed by all Greek city-states; involved athletic competitions and ritual celebrations.

Persian Wars: 5th century B.C.E. wars between the Persian Empire and Greek city-states; Greek victories allowed Greek civilization to define identity.

Peloponnesian War: war from 431 to 404 B.C.E. between Athens and Sparta for domination in Greece; the Spartans won but failed to achieve political unification in Greece.

Macedon: kingdom of northern Greece; originally loosely organized under kings; became centralized under Philip II; conquered Greek city-states.

Philip II: ruled Macedon from 359 to 336 B.C.E.; founder of centralized kingdom; conquered Greece.

Alexander the Great: (r. 336–323 B.C.E.); son and successor of Philip II; conquered Persian Empire and advanced to borders of India; attempted to combine Greek and Persian culture.

Alexandria: Egyptian city; founded 334 B.C.E.; one of many “Alexandrias” founded by Alexander the Great.

Socrates: (b. 465 B.C.E.); Athenian philosopher; usually seen as the father of western philosophy.

Aristotle: Greek philosopher; teacher of Alexander; taught that knowledge was based upon observation of phenomena in material world.

Stoics: Hellenistic philosophers; they emphasized inner moral independence cultivated by strict discipline of the body and personal bravery.

Sophocles: Greek writer of tragedies; author of *Oedipus Rex*.

Doric, Ionic, Corinthian: three distinct styles of Hellenic architecture; listed in order of increasing ornate quality.

Consuls: two chief executives of the Roman republic; elected annually by the assembly dominated by the aristocracy.

Carthage: founded by the Phoenicians in Tunisia; became a major empire in the western Mediterranean; fought the Punic wars with Rome for Mediterranean dominance; defeated and destroyed by the Romans.

Punic Wars: three wars (264–146 B.C.E.) between Rome and the Carthaginians; saw the transformation of Rome from a land to a sea power.

Hannibal: Carthaginian general during the second Punic War; invaded Italy but failed to conquer Rome.

Republic: the balanced political system of Rome from circa 510 to 47 B.C.E.; featured an aristocratic senate, a panel of magistrates, and popular assemblies.

Julius Caesar: general responsible for the conquest of Gaul; brought army back to Rome and overthrew republic; assassinated in B.C.E. by conservative senators.

Octavian: later took name of **Augustus**; Julius Caesar's grandnephew and adopted son; defeated conservative senators after Caesar's assassination; became first Roman emperor.

Cicero: conservative senator and Stoic philosopher; one of the great orators of his day.

Vergil: a great Roman epic poet during the Golden Age of Latin literature; author of the *Aeneid*.

Axum: a state in the Ethiopian highlands; received influences from the Arabian peninsula; converted to Christianity.

Shinto : religion of the early Japanese court; included the worship of numerous gods and spirits associated with the natural world.

Pastoral nomads: any of the many peoples, from the steppes of Asia that herded animals; transhumant migrants.

Celts: early migrants into western Europe; organized into small regional kingdoms; had mixed agricultural and hunting economies.

Germans: peoples from beyond the northern borders of the Roman Empire; had mixed agricultural and pastoral economies; moved into the Roman Empire in the 4th and 5th centuries C.E.

Slavs: Indo-European peoples who ultimately dominated much of eastern Europe; formed regional kingdoms by the 5th century C.E.

Olmec: cultural tradition that arose at San Lorenzo and La Venta in Mexico circa 1200 B.C.E.; featured irrigated agriculture, urbanism, elaborate religion, beginnings of calendrical and writing systems.

Polynesia: islands contained in a rough triangle with its points at Hawaii, New Zealand, and Easter Island.

Yellow Turbans: Chinese Daoists who launched a revolt in 184 C.E, promising a golden age to be brought about by divine magic.

Sui: dynasty succeeding the Han; grew from strong rulers in northern China; reunited China.

Tang: dynasty succeeding the Sui in 618 C.E

Rajput: regional military princes in India following the collapse of the Gupta Empire.

Devi: mother goddess within Hinduism; devotion to her spread widely after the collapse of the Gupta and encouraged new emotionalism in religious ritual.

Diocletian: Roman emperor (284–305 C.E); restored later empire by improved administration and tax collection.

Constantine: Roman emperor (321–337 C.E); established his capital at Constantinople; used Christianity to unify the empire.

Byzantine Empire: eastern half of the Roman Empire; survived until 1453; retained Mediterranean, especially Hellenistic, culture.

Mahayana: version of Buddhism popular in China; emphasized Buddha's role as a savior.

Bodhisattvas: Buddhist holy men who refused advance toward *nirvana* to receive prayers of the living to help them reach holiness.

Saints: holy men and women in Christianity; their merit could be tapped by ordinary Christians.

Pope: Bishop of Rome; head of the Catholic church in western Europe.

Augustine: North African Christian theologian; made major contributions in incorporating elements of classical philosophy into Christianity.

Benedict: founder of monasticism in the former western half of the Roman Empire; established the Benedictine rule in the 6th century.

Bedouin: nomadic pastoralists of the Arabian peninsula with a culture based on herding camels and goats.

Shaykhs: leaders of tribes and clans within bedouin society; usually possessed large herds, several wives, and many children.

Mecca: Arabian commercial center; dominated by the Quraysh; the home of Muhammad and the future center of Islam.

Medina: town northeast of Mecca; asked Muhammad to resolve its intergroup differences; Muhammad's flight to Medina, the *hijra*, in 622 began the Muslim calendar.

Umayyad: clan of the Quraysh that dominated Mecca; later an Islamic dynasty.

Muhammad: (570–632); prophet of Allah; originally a merchant of the Quraysh.

Khadijah: the wife of Muhammad.

Ka'ba: revered pre-Islamic shrine in Mecca; incorporated into Muslim worship.

Qur'an: the word of god as revealed through Muhammad; made into the holy book of Islam.

Umma: community of the faithful within Islam.

Zakat: tax for charity obligatory for all Muslims.

Five pillars: the obligatory religious duties for all Muslims: confession of faith, prayer, fasting during Ramadan, zakat, and *hajj* (pilgrimage to Mecca).

Caliph: the successor to Muhammad as head of the Islamic community.

Ali: cousin and son-in-law of Muhammad; one of the orthodox caliphs; focus for the development of shi'ism.

Abu Bakr: succeeded Muhammad as the first caliph.

Ridda: wars following Muhammad's death; the defeat of rival prophets and opponents restored the unity of Islam.

Jihad: Islamic holy war.

Uthman: third caliph; his assassination set off a civil war within Islam between the Umayyads and Ali.

Siffin: battle fought in 657 between Ali and the Umayyads; led to negotiations that fragmented Ali's party.

Mu'awiya: first Umayyad caliph; his capital was Damascus.

Copts, Nestorians: Christian sects of Syria and Egypt; gave their support to the Arabic Muslims.

Sunnis: followers of the majority interpretation within Islam; included the Umayyads.

Shi'a: followers of Ali's interpretation of Islam.

Karbala: site of the defeat and death of Husayn, the son of Ali.

Mawali: non-Arab converts to Islam.

Jizya: head tax paid by all non-Muslims in Islamic lands.

Dhimmi: "the people of the book," Jews, Christians; later extended to Zoroastrians and Hindus.

Abbasids: dynasty that succeeded the Umayyads in 750; their capital was at Baghdad.

Hadiths: "traditions" of the prophet Muhammad; added to the Qur'an, form the essential writings of Islam.

Battle of the River Zab: 750; Abbasid victory over the Umayyads, near the Tigris. Led to Abbasid ascendancy.

Baghdad: Abbasid capital, close to the old Persian capital of Ctesiphon.

Wazir: chief administrative official under the Abbasids.

Dhows: Arab sailing vessels; equipped with lateen sails; used by Arab merchants.

Ayan: the wealthy landed elite that emerged under the Abbasids.

Al-Mahdi: 3rd Abbasid caliph (775–785); failed to reconcile Shi'a moderates to his dynasty and to resolve the succession problem.

Harun al-Rashid: most famous of the Abbasid caliphs (786-809); renowned for sumptuous and costly living recounted in *The Thousand and One Nights*.

Buyids: Persian invaders of the 10th century; captured Baghdad; and as sultans, through Abbasid figureheads.

Seljuk Turks: nomadic invaders from central Asia; staunch Sunnis; ruled from the 11th century in the name of the Abbasids.

Crusades: invasions of western Christians into Muslim lands, especially Palestine; captured Jerusalem and established Christian kingdoms enduring until 1291.

Salah-ud-Din: (1137–1193); Muslim ruler of Egypt and Syria; reconquered most of the crusader kingdoms.

Ibn Khaldun: Great Muslim historian; author of *The Muqaddimah*; sought to uncover persisting patterns in Muslim dynastic history.

Rubaiyat: epic of Omar Khayyam; seeks to find meaning in life and a path to union with the divine.

Shah-Nama: epic poem written by Firdawsi in the late 10th and early 11th centuries; recounts the history of Persia to the era of Islamic conquests.

Sa'di: a great poet of the Abbasid era.

Al-Razi: classified all matter as animal, vegetable, and mineral.

Al-Biruni: 11th-century scientist; calculated the specific weight of major minerals.

Ulama: Islamic religious scholars; pressed for a more conservative and restrictive theology; opposed to non-Islamic thinking.

Al-Ghazali: brilliant Islamic theologian; attempted to fuse Greek and Qur'anic traditions.

Sufis: Islamic mystics; spread Islam to many Afro-Asian regions.

Mongols: central Asian nomadic peoples; captured Baghdad in 1258 and killed the last Abbasid caliph.

Chinggis Khan: (1162–1227); Mongol ruler; defeated the Turkish Persian kingdoms.

Hulegu: grandson of Chinggis Khan; continued his work, taking Baghdad in 1258.

Mamluks: Rulers of Egypt, descended from Turkish slaves.

Muhammad ibn Qasim: Arab general who conquered Sind and made it part of the Umayyad Empire.

Arabic numerals: Indian numerical notation brought by the Arabs to the West.

Mahmud of Ghazni: ruler of an Afghan dynasty; invaded northern India during the 11th century.

Muhammad of Ghur: Persian ruler of a small Afghan kingdom; invaded and conquered much of northern India.

Qutb-ud-din Aibak: lieutenant of Muhammad of Ghur; established kingdom in India with the capital at Delhi.

Sati: Hindu ritual for burning widows with their deceased husbands.

Bhaktic cults: Hindu religious groups who stressed the importance of strong emotional bonds between devotees and the gods or goddesses—especially Shiva, Vishnu, and Kali.

Mir Bai: low-caste woman poet and song-writer in bhaktic cults.

Kabir: 15th-century Muslim mystic who played down the differences between Hinduism and Islam.

Shrivijaya: trading empire based on the Malacca straits; its Buddhist government resisted Muslim missionaries; when it fell, southeastern Asia was opened to Islam.

Malacca: flourishing trading city in Malaya; established a trading empire after the fall of Shrivijaya.

Demak: most powerful of the trading states on the north Java coast; converted to Islam and served as a dissemination point to other regions.

Stateless societies: societies of varying sizes organized through kinship and lacking the concentration of power found in centralized states.

Ifriqiya: Roman name for present-day Tunisia.

Maghrib: Arabic term for northwestern Africa.

Almoravids: a puritanical Islamic reform movement among the Berbers of northwest Africa; built an empire reaching from the African savanna into Spain.

Almohadis: a later puritanical Islamic reform movement among the Berbers of northwest Africa; also built an empire reaching from the African savanna into Spain.

Ethiopia: a Christian kingdom in the highlands of eastern Africa.

Lalibela: 13th-century Ethiopian ruler; built great rock churches.

Sahel: the extensive grassland belt at the southern edge of the Sahara; an exchange region between the forests in the south and north of Africa.

Sudanic states: states trading with north Africa and mixing Islamic and indigenous ways.

Mali: state of the Malinke people centered between the Senegal and Niger rivers.

Juula: Malinke merchants who traded throughout the Mali Empire and west Africa.

Mansa: title of the ruler of Mali.

Ibn Batuta: Arab traveler throughout the Muslim world.

Kankan Musa: (c.1312–1337); made a pilgrimage to Mecca during the 14th century that became legendary because of the wealth distributed along the way.

Ishak al-Sahili: architect from Muslim Spain who returned with Kankan Musa to Mali; created a distinctive Sudanic architecture utilizing beaten clay.

Sundiata: created a unified state that became the Mali empire; died in 1260.

Timbuktu: Niger River port city of Mali; had a famous Muslim university.

Songhay: successor state to Mali; dominated middle reaches of the Niger valley; capital at Gao.

Askia Muhammad: extended the boundaries of Songhay in the mid-16th century.

Hausa states: states, such as Kano, among the Hausa of northern Nigeria; combined Islamic and indigenous beliefs.

East African trading ports: urbanized commercial centers mixing African and Arab cultures; included Mogadishu, Mombasa, Malindi, Kilwa, Pate, and Zanzibar.

Demographic transition: the change from slow to rapid population growth; often associated with industrialization; occurred first in Europe and is more characteristic of the “developed world.”

Justinian: 6th-century Byzantine emperor; failed to reconquer the western portions of the empire; rebuilt Constantinople; codified Roman law.

Hagia Sophia: great domed church constructed during reign of Justinian.

Body of Civil Law: Justinian’s codification of Roman law; reconciled Roman edicts and decisions; made Roman law coherent basis for political and economic life.

Belisarius: (c.505–565); one of Justinian’s most important military commanders during the attempted reconquest of western Europe.

Greek Fire: Byzantine weapon consisting of mixture of chemicals that ignited when exposed to water; used to drive back the Arab fleets attacking Constantinople.

Bulgaria: Slavic kingdom in Balkans; constant pressure on Byzantine Empire; defeated by Basil II in 1014.

Icons: images of religious figures venerated by Byzantine Christians.

Iconoclasm: the breaking of images; religious controversy of the 8th century; Byzantine emperor attempted, but failed, to suppress icon veneration.

Manzikert: Seljuk Turk victory in 1071 over Byzantium; resulted in loss of the empire's rich Anatolian territory.

Cyril and Methodius: Byzantine missionaries sent to convert eastern Europe and Balkans; responsible for creation of Slavic written script called Cyrillic.

Kiev: commercial city in Ukraine established by Scandinavians in 9th century; became the center for a kingdom that flourished until the 12th century.

Rurik: legendary Scandinavian, regarded as founder of Kievan Rus' in 855.

Vladimir I: ruler of Kiev (980–1015); converted kingdom to Orthodox Christianity.

Russian Orthodoxy: Russian form of Christianity brought from Byzantine Empire.

Yaroslav: (975–1054); Last great Kievan monarch; responsible for codification of laws, based on Byzantine codes.

Boyars: Russian land-holding aristocrats; possessed less political power than their western European counterparts.

Tatars: Mongols who conquered Russian cities during the 13th century; left Russian church and aristocracy intact.

Nok: central Nigerian culture with a highly developed art style flourishing between 500 B.C.E. and 200 C.E.

Yoruba: highly urbanized Nigerian agriculturists organized into small city-states, as Oyo, under the authority of regional divine kings presiding over elaborate courts.

Ile-Ife: the holiest Yoruba city; created terra-cotta and bronze portrait heads that rank among the greatest achievements of African art.

Benin: Nigerian city-state formed by the Edo people during the 14th century; famous for its bronze art work.

Luba: peoples, in Katanga; created a form of divine kingship where the ruler had powers ensuring fertility of people and crops.

Kongo Kingdom: large agricultural state on the lower Congo River; capital at Mbanza Congo.

Zimbabwe: central African royal stone courts.

Great Zimbabwe: with massive stone buildings and walls, incorporates the greatest early buildings in sub-Saharan Africa.

Mwene Mutapa: ruler of Great Zimbabwe; controlled a large territory reaching to the Indian Ocean.

Middle Ages: the period in western European history between the fall of the Roman Empire and the 15th century.

Gothic: an architectural style developed during the 13th and 14th centuries in western Europe; featured pointed arches and flying buttresses as external support on main walls.

Vikings: seagoing Scandinavian raiders who disrupted coastal areas of Europe from the 8th to 11th centuries; pushed across the Atlantic to Iceland, Greenland, and North America. Formed permanent territories in Normandy and Sicily.

Manorialism: rural system of reciprocal relations between landlords and their peasant laborers during the Middle Ages; peasants exchanged labor for use of land and protection.

Serfs: peasant agricultural laborers within the manorial system.

Moldboard: adjunct to the plow introduced in northern Europe during the Middle Ages; permitted deeper cultivation of heavier soils.

Three-field system: practice of dividing land into thirds, rotating between two different crops and pasturage—an improvement making use of manure.

Clovis: King of the Franks; converted to Christianity circa 496.

Carolingians: royal house of Franks from 8th to 10th century.

Charles Martel: First Carolingian king of the Franks; defeated Muslims at Tours in 732.

Charlemagne: Carolingian monarch who established large empire in France and Germany circa 800.

Holy Roman emperors: political heirs to Charlemagne's empire in northern Italy and Germany; claimed title of emperor but failed to develop centralized monarchy.

Feudalism: personal relationship during the Middle Ages by which greater lords provided land to lesser lords in return for military service.

Vassals: members of the military elite who received land or a benefice from a lord in return for military service and loyalty.

Capetians: French dynasty ruling from the 10th century; developed a strong centralized monarchy.

William the Conqueror: invaded England from Normandy in 1066; established tight feudal system and centralized monarchy in England.

Magna Carta: Great charter issued by King John of England in 1215; represented principle of mutual limits and obligations between rulers and feudal aristocracy, and the supremacy of law.

Parliaments: bodies representing privileged groups; institutionalized the principle that kings ruled with the advice and consent of their subjects.

Hundred Years War: conflict between England and France (1337–1453).

Pope Urban II: organized the first Crusade in 1095; appealed to Christians to free the Holy Land from Muslim control.

Investiture: the practice of appointment of bishops; Pope Gregory attempted to stop lay investiture, leading to a conflict with the Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV.

St. Clare of Assisi: 13th-century founder of a woman's monastic order; represented a new spirit of purity and dedication to the Catholic church.

Gregory VII: 11th-century pope who attempted to free church from secular control; quarreled with Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV over practice of lay investiture of bishops.

Peter Abelard: Author of *Yes and No*; university scholar who applied logic to problems of theology; demonstrated logical contradictions within established doctrine.

St. Bernard of Clairvaux: emphasized role of faith in preference to logic; stressed importance of mystical union with God; successfully challenged Abelard and had him driven from the universities.

Thomas Aquinas: creator of one of the great syntheses of medieval learning; taught at University of Paris; author of *Summas*; believed that through reason it was possible to know much about natural order, moral law, and nature of God.

Scholasticism: dominant medieval philosophical approach; so-called because of its base in the schools or universities; based on use of logic to resolve theological problems.

Troubadours: poets in 14th-century southern France; gave a new value to the emotion of love in Western tradition.

Hanseatic League: an organization of north German and Scandinavian cities for the purpose of establishing a commercial alliance.

Jacques Coeur: 15th-century French merchant; his career as banker to the French monarchy demonstrates new course of medieval commerce.

Guilds: associations of workers in the same occupation in a single city; stressed security and mutual control; limited membership, regulated apprenticeship, guaranteed good workmanship; held a privileged place in cities.

Black Death: bubonic plague that struck Europe in the 14th century; significantly reduced Europe's population; affected social structure.

Indian: misnomer created by Columbus when referring to indigenous New World peoples; still used to describe Native Americans.

Toltecs: nomadic peoples from beyond the northern frontier of sedentary agriculture in Mesoamerica; established capital at Tula following migration into central Mesoamerican plateau; strongly militaristic ethic, including cult of human sacrifice.

Aztecs: the Mexica; one of the nomadic tribes that penetrated into the sedentary zone of the Mesoamerican plateau after the fall of the Toltecs; established empire after 1325 around shores of Lake Texcoco.

Tenochtitlan: founded circa 1325 on a marshy island in Lake Texcoco; became center of Aztec power.

Huitzilopochtli: Aztec tribal patron god; central figure of human sacrifice and warfare; identified with old sun god.

Calpulli: clans in Aztec society; evolved into residential groupings that distributed land and provided labor and warriors.

Chinampas: beds of aquatic weeds, mud, and earth placed in frames made of cane and rooted in lakes to create "floating islands"; system of irrigated agriculture used by Aztecs.

Pochteca: merchant class in Aztec society; specialized in long-distance trade in luxury items.

Inca socialism: an interpretation describing Inca society as a type of utopia; image of the Inca empire as a carefully organized system in which every community collectively contributed to the whole.

Twantinsuyu: Inca word for their empire; region from Colombia to Chile and eastward into Bolivia and Argentina.

Inca: group of clans (*ayllu*) centered at Cuzco; created an empire in the Andes during the 15th century; also title of the ruler.

Pachacuti: Inca ruler (1438–1471); began the military campaigns that marked the creation of an Inca empire.

Topac Yupanqui: Inca ruler (1471–1493); extended his father's conquests; seized the northern coastal kingdom of Chimor and pushed into Ecuador.

Huayna Capac: Inca ruler (1493–1527); brought the empire to its greatest extent.

Split inheritance: Inca practice of ruler descent; all titles and political power went to successor, but wealth and land remained in hands of male descendants for support of dead Inca's mummy.

Temple of the Sun: Inca religious center at Cuzco; center of state religion; held mummies of past Incas.

Curacas: local rulers who the Inca left in office in return for loyalty.

Tambos: way stations used by Incas as inns and storehouses; supply centers for Inca armies; relay points for system of runners used to carry messages.

Quipu: system of knotted strings utilized by the Incas in place of a writing system; could contain numerical and other types of information for censuses and financial records.

Period of the Six Dynasties: era of continuous warfare (220–589) among the many kingdoms that followed the fall of the Han.

Wendi: member of prominent northern Chinese family during the era of Six Dynasties; established Sui dynasty in 589, with support from northern nomadic peoples.

Yangdi: 2nd Sui ruler; restored Confucian examination system; constructed canal system; assassinated in 618.

Li Yuan: Duke of Tang; minister for Yangdi; took over the empire after the assassination of Yangdi; 1st Tang ruler.

Ministry of Public Rites: administered the examinations for state office during the Tang dynasty.

Jinshi: title given students who passed the most difficult examinations; became eligible for high office.

Chan Buddhism: called Zen in Japan; stressed meditation and appreciation of natural and artistic beauty; popular among the elite.

Mahayana (Pure Land) Buddhism: emphasized salvationist aspects of Chinese Buddhism; popular among the masses.

Wuzong: Tang emperor (841–847); persecuted Buddhist monasteries and reduced influence of Buddhism in favor of Confucianism.

Yang Guifei: royal concubine of Tang emperor Xuanzong; introduction of relatives into administration led to revolt.

Khitan nomads: founded Liao dynasty of Manchuria in 907; remained a threat to Song; very much influenced by Chinese culture.

Zhao Kuangyin: general who founded Song dynasty; took royal name of Taizu.

Zhu Xi: most prominent Neo-Confucian scholar during the Song dynasty; stressed importance of applying philosophical principles to everyday life.

Wang Anshi: Confucian scholar and chief minister of a Song ruler in 1070s; introduced sweeping reforms based on Legalism; advocated greater state intervention in society.

Southern Song: smaller surviving dynasty (1127–1279); presided over one of the greatest cultural reigns in world history.

Jurchens: founders of Jin kingdom that succeeded the Liao in northern China; annexed most of Yellow River basin and forced Song to flee south.

Grand Canal: great canal system begun by Yangdi; joined Yellow River region to the Yangtze basin.

Junks: Chinese ships equipped with watertight bulkheads, stern-post rudders, compasses, and bamboo fenders; dominant force in Asian seas east of the Malayan peninsula.

Flying money: Chinese credit instrument that provided vouchers to merchants to be redeemed at the end of a venture; reduced danger of robbery; an early form of currency.

Changan: capital of Tang dynasty; population of 2 million larger than any contemporary world city.

Hangzhou: capital of later Song; location near East China Sea permitted international commerce; population over 1.5 million.

Footbinding: male imposed practice to mutilate women's feet in order to reduce size; produced pain and restricted movement; helped to confine women to the household.

Bi Sheng: 11th-century artisan; devised technique of printing with movable type; made it possible for China to be the most contemporary literate civilization.

Li Bo: most famous poet of the Tang era; blended images of the mundane world with philosophical musings.

Taika reforms: attempt to remake Japanese monarch into an absolutist Chinese-style emperor; included attempts to create professional bureaucracy and peasant conscript army.

Heian: Japanese city later called Kyoto; built to escape influence of Buddhist monks.

Tale of Genji: written by Lady Murasaki; first novel in any language; evidence for mannered style of Japanese society.

Fujiwara: mid-9th-century Japanese aristocratic family; exercised exceptional influence over imperial affairs; aided in decline of imperial power.

Bushi: regional warrior leaders in Japan; ruled small kingdoms from fortresses; administered the law, supervised public works projects, and collected revenues; built up private armies.

Samurai: mounted troops of the bushi; loyal to local lords, not the emperor.

Seppuku: ritual suicide in Japan; also known as *hari-kiri*; demonstrated courage and was a means to restore family honor.

Gumpei wars: waged for five years from 1180 on Honshu between the Taira and Minamoto families; ended in destruction of Taira.

Bakufu: military government established by the Minamoto following Gumpei wars; centered at Kamakura; retained emperor, but real power resided in military government and samurai.

Shoguns: military leaders of the bakufu.

Hojo: a warrior family closely allied with the Minamoto; dominated Kamakura regime and manipulated Minamoto rulers; ruled in name of emperor.

Ashikaga Takauji: member of Minamoto family; overthrew Kamakura regime and established Ashikaga shogunate (1336–1573); drove emperor from Kyoto to Yoshino.

Daimyos: warlord rulers of small states following Onin war and disruption of Ashikaga shogunate; holdings consolidated into unified and bounded mini-states.

Choson: earliest Korean kingdom; conquered by Han in 109 B.C.E.

Koguryo: tribal people of northern Korea; established an independent kingdom in the northern half of the peninsula; adopted cultural Sinification.

Sinification: extensive adaptation of Chinese culture in other regions.

Silla: Korean kingdom in southeast; became a vassal of the Tang and paid tribute; ruled Korea from 668.

Yi: dynasty (1392–1910); succeeded Koryo dynasty after Mongol invasions; restored aristocratic dominance and Chinese influence.

Trung sisters: leaders of a rebellion in Vietnam against Chinese rule in 39 C.E.; demonstrates importance of women in Vietnamese society.

Khmers and Chams: Indianized Vietnamese peoples defeated by northern government at Hanoi.

Nguyen: southern Vietnamese dynasty with capital at Hue that challenged northern Trinh dynasty with center at Hanoi.

Chinggis Khan: born in 1170s; elected supreme Mongol ruler (khagan) in 1206; began the Mongols rise to world power; died 1227.

Tumens: basic fighting units of Mongol forces; made up of 10,000 cavalymen divided into smaller units.

Tangut: rulers of Xi-Xia kingdom of northwest China; during the southern Song period; conquered by Mongols in 1226.

Muhammad Shah II: Turkic ruler of Muslim Khwarazm; conquered by Mongols in 1220.

Karakorum: capital of Mongol Empire under Chinggis Khan.

Shamanistic religion: Mongol beliefs focused on nature spirits.

Batu: grandson of Chinggis Khan and ruler of Golden Horde; invaded Russia in 1236.

Ogedei: third son of Chinggis Khan; succeeded him as Mongol khagan.

Golden Horde: one of four regional subdivisions of the Mongol Empire after the death of Chinggis Khan; conquered and ruled Russia during the 13th and 14th centuries.

Prester John: a mythical Christian monarch whose kingdom supposedly had been cut off from Europe by the Muslim conquests; some thought he was Chinggis Khan.

Ilkhan khanate: one of four regional subdivisions of the Mongol empire after the death of Chinggis Khan; eventually included much of Abbasid empire.

Hulegu: grandson of Chinggis Khan and ruler of Ilkhan khanate; captured and destroyed Abbasid Baghdad.

Mamluks: Muslim slave warriors; established dynasty in Egypt; led by Baibars defeated Mongols in 1260.

Kublai Khan: grandson of Chinggis Khan; conquered China; established Yuan dynasty in 1271.

Tatu: Mongol capital of Yuan dynasty; present-day Beijing.

Chabi: influential wife of Kubilai Khan; demonstrated refusal of Mongol women to adopt restrictive social conventions of Confucian China.

Nestorians: Asian Christian sect; cut off from Europe by Muslim invasions.

Romance of the West Chamber: famous Chinese dramatic work written during the Yuan period.

White Lotus Society: secret religious society dedicated to overthrow of Yuan dynasty.

Ju Yuanzhang: Chinese peasant who led successful revolt against Yuan; founded Ming dynasty.

Timur-i Lang: last major nomad leader; 14th, known to the West as Tamerlane; century Turkic ruler of Samarkand; launched attacks in Persia, Fertile Crescent, India, southern Russia; empire disintegrated after his death in 1405.

Ottoman Empire: Turkish Empire established in Asia Minor and eventually extending through the Middle East and the Balkans; conquered Constantinople in 1453 and ended Byzantine Empire.

Ibn-Rushd (Averröes): Iberian Muslim philosopher; studied Greek rationalism; ignored among Muslims but influential in Europe.

Ming Dynasty: replaced Mongol Yuan dynasty in China in 1368; lasted until 1644; initially mounted large trade expeditions to southern Asia and Africa; later concentrated on internal development within China.

Zheng He: Muslim Chinese seaman; commanded expeditions throughout the India Ocean.

Black Death: 14th-century bubonic plague epidemic; decimated populations in Asia and Europe.

Renaissance: cultural and political elite movement beginning in Italy circa 1400; rested on urban vitality and expanding commerce; produced literature and art with distinctly more secular priorities than those of the European Middle Ages.

Portugal, Castile, and Aragon: regional Iberian kingdoms; participated in reconquest of peninsula from Muslims; developed a vigorous military and religious agenda.

Francesco Petrarch: Italian author and humanist; a major literary figure of the Renaissance.

Vivaldi brothers: Genoese explorers who attempted to find a western route to the “Indies”; precursors of European thrust into southern Atlantic.

Henry the Navigator: Portuguese prince; sponsored Atlantic voyages; reflected the forces present in late postclassical Europe.

Ethnocentrism: judging foreigners by the standards of one’s own group; leads to problems in interpreting world history.

Vasco Da Gama: Portuguese mariner; first European to reach India by sea in 1498.

Christopher Columbus: Italian navigator in the service of Aragon and Castile; sailed west to find a route to India and instead came upon the Americas in 1492.

Ferdinand Magellan: Portuguese captain in Spanish service; began the first circumnavigation of the globe in 1519; died during voyage; allowed Spain to claim possession of the Philippines.

East India Companies: British, French, and Dutch trading companies that obtained government monopolies of trade to India and Asia; acted independently in their regions.

World economy: created by Europeans during the late 16th century; based on control of the seas; established an international exchange of foods, diseases, and manufactured products.

Columbian Exchange: interaction between Europe and the Americas; millions of native Americans died from the entry of new diseases; New World crops spread to other world regions; European and Asian animals came to the Americas.

Lepanto: naval battle between Spain and the Ottoman Empire resulting in Spanish victory in 1571; demonstrated European naval superiority over Muslims.

Core nations: nations, usually European, that profited from the world economy; controlled international banking and commercial services; exported manufactured goods and imported raw materials.

Mercantilism: the colonial economic policy, by which a colonizing nation must import only from its own colonies, but sell exports as widely as possible.

Dependent economic zones: regions within the world economy that produced raw materials; dependent upon European markets and shipping; tendency to build systems based on forced and cheap labor.

Mestizos: people of mixed European and Native American heritage.

Vasco de Balboa: (1475?–1517), Spanish adventurer; explored Central America.

Francisco Pizarro (1478–1541); Spanish explorer; arrived in the Americas in 1502; joined Balboa in Panama, then successfully attacked the Inca Empire.

New France: French colonies in Canada and elsewhere; extended along St. Lawrence River and Great Lakes and down Mississippi River valley system.

Atlantic colonies: British colonies in North America along Atlantic coast from New England to Georgia.

Treaty of Paris: concluded in 1763 following the Seven Years’ War; Britain gained New France and ended France’s importance in India.

Cape Colony: Dutch colony established at Cape of Good Hope in 1652 to provide a coastal station for Dutch ships traveling to and from Asia; settlers expanded and fought with Bantu and other Africans.

Boers: Dutch and other European settlers in Cape Colony before 19th-century British occupation; later called Afrikaners.

Calcutta: British East India Company headquarters in Bengal; captured in 1756 by Indians; later became administrative center for populous Bengal.

Seven Years' War: fought in Europe, Africa, and Asia between 1756 and 1763; the first worldwide war.

Italian Renaissance: 14th- and 15th-century movement influencing political forms, literature, and the arts; consisted largely of a revival of classical culture.

Niccolo Machiavelli: author of *The Prince*; emphasized realistic discussions of how to seize and maintain power.

Humanism: philosophy, or ideology, with a focus on humanity as the center of intellectual and artistic endeavor.

Northern Renaissance: cultural and intellectual movement of northern Europe; influenced by earlier Italian Renaissance; centered in France, Low Countries, England, and Germany; featured greater emphasis on religion than the Italian Renaissance.

Francis I: king of France (r. 1494–1547); one of many monarchs of the Renaissance period that were influential through their patronage of the arts.

Johannes Gutenberg: introduced movable type to western Europe in the 15th century; greatly expanded the availability of printed materials.

European-style family: emerged in the 15th century; involved a later marriage age and a primary emphasis on the nuclear family.

Martin Luther: German Catholic monk who initiated the Protestant Reformation; emphasized the primacy of faith for gaining salvation in place of Catholic sacraments; rejected papal authority.

Protestantism: general wave of religious dissent against the Catholic church; formally began with Martin Luther in 1517.

Anglican church: form of Protestantism in England established by Henry VIII.

Jean Calvin: French Protestant who stressed doctrine of predestination; established center of his group in Geneva; in the long run encouraged wider public education and access to government.

Catholic Reformation: Catholic response to the Protestant Reformation; reformed and revived Catholic doctrine.

Jesuits: Catholic religious order founded during Catholic Reformation; active in politics, education, and missionary work outside of Europe.

Edict of Nantes: 1598 grant of tolerance in France to French Protestants after lengthy civil wars between Catholics and Protestants.

Thirty Years War: war from 1618 to 1648 between German Protestants and their allies and the Holy Roman emperor and Spain; caused great destruction.

Treaty of Westphalia: ended Thirty Years War in 1648; granted right of individual rulers and cities to choose their own religion for their people; Netherlands gained independence.

English Civil War: conflict from 1640 to 1660; included religious and constitutional issues concerning the powers of the monarchy; ended with restoration of a limited monarchy.

Proletariat: class of people without access to producing property; usually manufacturing workers, paid laborers in agriculture, or urban poor; product of the economic changes of the 16th and 17th centuries.

Witchcraft persecution: outburst reflecting uncertainties about religious truth and resentments against the poor, especially women.

Scientific Revolution: process culminating in Europe during the 17th century; period of empirical advances associated with the development of wider theoretical generalizations; became a central focus of Western culture.

Copernicus: Polish monk and astronomer; disproved Hellenistic belief that the sun was at the center of the universe.

Johannes Kepler: resolved basic issues of planetary motion and accomplished important work in optics.

Galileo: publicized Copernicus's findings; added own discoveries concerning the laws of gravity and planetary motion; condemned by the Catholic church for his work.

William Harvey: English physician who demonstrated the circular movement of blood in animals and the function of the heart as pump.

René Descartes: philosopher who established the importance of the skeptical review of all received wisdom; argued that human wisdom could develop laws that would explain the fundamental workings of nature.

Isaac Newton: English scientist; author of *Principia*; drew the various astronomical and physical observations and wider theories together in a neat framework of natural laws; established principles of motion and defined forces of gravity.

Deism: concept of God during the Scientific Revolution; the role of divinity was limited to setting natural laws in motion.

John Locke: English philosopher who argued that people could learn everything through their senses and reason; argued that the power of government came from the people, not from the divine right of kings; they had the right to overthrow tyrants.

Absolute monarchy: concept of government developed during the rise of the nation-state in western Europe during the 17th century; monarchs held the absolute right to direct their state.

Louis XIV: French king who personified absolute monarchy.

Glorious Revolution: English political settlement of 1688 and 1689 which affirmed that parliament had basic sovereignty over the king.

Frederick the Great: Prussian king who introduced Enlightenment reforms; included freedom of religion and increased state control of the economy.

Enlightenment: intellectual movement centered in France during the 18th century; argued for scientific advance, the application of scientific methods to study human society; believed that rational laws could describe social behavior.

Adam Smith: established new school of economic thought; argued that governments should avoid regulation of economies in favor of the free play of market forces.

Mary Wollstonecraft: Enlightenment English feminist thinker; argued that political rights should be extended to women.

Ivan III (the Great): Prince of the Duchy of Moscow; responsible for freeing Russia from the Mongols; took the title of tsar (caesar).

Ivan IV (the Terrible): confirmed power of tsarist autocracy by attacking the authority of the boyars; continued policy of expansion; established contacts with western European commerce and culture.

Cossacks: peasant-adventurers with agricultural and military skills, recruited to conquer and settle in newly seized lands in southern Russia and Siberia.

Time of Troubles: early 17th-century period of boyar efforts to regain power and foreign invasion following the death without an heir of Ivan IV; ended with the selection of Michael Romanov as tsar in 1613.

Romanov dynasty: ruled Russia from 1613 to 1917.

Alexis Romanov: Second Romanov ruler; abolished assemblies of nobles; gained new powers over the Orthodox church.

Old Believers: conservative Russians who refused to accept the ecclesiastical reforms of Alexis Romanov; many were exiled to southern Russia or Siberia.

Peter I (the Great): tsar from 1689 to 1725; continued growth of absolutism and conquest; sought to change selected aspects of the economy and culture through imitation of western European models.

St. Petersburg: Baltic city, made the new capital of Russia by Peter I.

Catherine the Great: German-born Russian tsarina; combined receptivity to selective Enlightenment ideas with strong centralizing policies; converted the nobility to a service aristocracy by granting them new power over the peasantry.

Partition of Poland: three separate divisions of Polish territory between Russia, Prussia, and Austria in 1772, 1793, and 1795; eliminated Poland as an independent state.

Pugachev rebellion: unsuccessful peasant rising led by cossack Emelyan Pugachev during the 1770s; typical of peasant unrest during the 18th century and thereafter.